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MODERN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN AMERICAN COLLEGES: 1779-1800

Modern languages today are everywhere recognized as one of the major subjects in our college curriculum. The commercial development of this country and the constantly growing trade have undoubtedly given a great impetus to their study, while the utilitarian tendency of recent years has emphasized the importance of studying the living languages in order to understand better the civilization of other races and to form thereby closer international ties. General as it is today, however, the study of modern languages in our colleges and universities had a slow and painful growth, and their relative value and importance were often questioned. It was not until well into the middle of the nineteenth century that they received permanent and definite status, and that they were recognized as essential in the education of a college graduate.

On January 17, 1924, the College of William and Mary commemorated the founding of the first Modern Language Department in the United States. It was this fact that aroused the interest of the writer and made him curious to know something about the beginnings of modern language instruction in this country. The questions that naturally arose in his mind were: How soon after the establishment of the first department in 1779 were similar departments organized in other colleges? Had there been any unofficial teaching of modern languages previous to this date? What languages were the first to be taught? Who were the first instructors? What was the nature and scope of the courses offered? These and many other similar questions

presented themselves. In order to find answers, a questionnaire was sent to the thirty oldest institutions of learning in this country, and on their replies, and the few studies made of this subject, is based the following historical sketch, an attempt to give a picture, though fragmentary and imperfect in many respects, of the early teaching of modern languages in the United States.

It appears from the information available that modern languages were taught as extra-curriculum subjects long before they were officially recognized. It took almost three-quarters of a century for them to obtain recognition. During this long period of time we find that here and there, first in one section of the country and then in another, unofficial instruction in one or more of the modern languages was offered. The first record of such teaching is to be found at Harvard, where French was taught as early as 1720, according to Thomas Blair, who in that year published a quaint little book in Boston entitled "Some Short and Easy Rules Teaching the True Pronunciation of the French Language."¹ Heretofore it has generally been thought that the earliest teaching of French at Harvard was done by M. Langloiserie in 1735.² It seems from the statements made in the introduction to the little book referred to, however, that Blair was permitted to teach French to the students in a private capacity, but the exact date at which he began his work, or whether permission was granted by the president, the president and tutors, or the corporation are questions that cannot be determined from the records. Practically nothing can be found regarding his life or the duration of his teaching of French at Harvard. If he were the Thomas Blair referred to in Rev. William Homes' *Diary*, he died October 27, 1723.³

Curiously enough, a year later, there appeared the second book to be published in this country on the subject under the title of "Some Observations upon the French Tongue." This is a short pamphlet consisting of twenty-four pages in all, printed in Boston in 1724 by B. Green. The author of this interesting

¹*Publications of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts*, xvii, 217.

²Handchin, Charles Hart, "The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States." *U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin* 1913, No. 3, p. 21.

³*Publications of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts*, xvii, 218.

pamphlet has not been definitely identified since he chose to sign only his initials, a practice very common in those days and which has often baffled investigators in later years. The initials, which are A. L. M., have been identified with A. le Mercier,⁴ who may well have been the author. But if he were the author, it must be asserted, nevertheless, that there appear no names in the records of the corporation regarding persons teaching the French language during the next ten years following the death of Blair and that the author, therefore, was in no way connected with the college.

It seems that early in 1728 there came to Boston with Governor Burnet a young Canadian, M. Louis Langloiserie.⁵ He belonged to a family of French extraction and, though a Catholic by birth, he seems to have been converted to Protestantism soon after his arrival in New York in 1725. Upon the death of Governor Burnet, September 7, 1729, he went to Europe for a year, at the end of which he again returned to Boston and obtained permission from the Selectmen to open a French school. He later applied for and obtained permission, September 1, 1733, from the president and tutors of Harvard College to teach French to such students as had the consent of their parents or guardians provided the instruction was given at such times as would not conflict with the regular schedule of college studies and exercises. He seems to have fulfilled his duties well until April 1, 1735, when at a meeting of the Corporation a resolution was passed asking the president and tutors to investigate the "unsound and dangerous doctrines" which M. Langloiserie held and delivered to his students.

Just what the doctrines were is not clear from the records, but on May 13 the president and tutors, after due investigation, voted to prohibit both graduate and undergraduate students from receiving instruction from M. Langloiserie "either within the College Walls or elsewhere." After this incident we lose sight of him and know practically nothing more. Whether he remained in Boston or whether he continued to teach a French

⁴*Ibid.*, 119-120.

⁵The rest of this sketch on M. Langloiserie is drawn from the account given by Mr. Albert Matthews in "Teaching of French at Harvard College Before 1750." *Publications of the Colonial Society of Massachusetts*, xvii, 216-232.

school cannot be determined. It seems that he went back to Catholicism later, though it can safely be asserted that during the time he taught French at Harvard he was a good Protestant. The exact name and identity of this early teacher of French had troubled several investigators, and, until the publication of the interesting and scholarly article on the "Teaching of French at Harvard College before 1750," little was known concerning his life.

Probably the first French Club in America was organized in Boston between 1728 and 1729, soon after the arrival of M. Langloiserie. This device in modern language teaching is generally considered by teachers of today as a very modern one. It is interesting to note, therefore, that such a club was organized as early as 1729 and that it was clearly stated in its constitution that "the whole conversation is to be in French."⁶ After the sudden withdrawal of M. Langloiserie in 1735, there appears to be only one more instance of French instruction at Harvard before 1750. It seems that from 1746 to 1748 a Mr. Gardner gave such instruction.⁷ Whether he was permitted by the president and tutors or by the Corporation cannot be determined, nor can any information be found as to how long he remained at Harvard.

Though the records do not give a complete list of the persons permitted at different times to teach French, it is clear from the evidence at hand that several persons were "permitted by the Corporation to teach such students as so desired" from time to time. In 1766 we find a Mr. J. J. Berg, of Danish descent, in this capacity, and in 1769 a Mr. Curtis was engaged in giving such instruction, remaining at the college till 1771. It is evident that there were students who desired to learn the modern languages and that the interest was growing steadily, but several years elapsed before they were officially recognized.

Let us take a rapid glance and see what was being done in other parts of the country while this was going on at Harvard. At this time French was also being taught in Virginia at the College of William and Mary, but by whom and to what extent, the college records do not show. In 1753 we find that the

⁶*Ibid.*, 220-221.

⁷*Ibid.*, 231.

College of Philadelphia was making inquiries regarding the ability of a Mr. Cramer⁸ to teach the French, German, and Italian languages, and that the following year a French school had been actually established as a part of the College.⁹ It seems that in 1755 the trustees decided to dispense with the services of Mr. Cramer, and he was accordingly dismissed on July 11, 1755.¹⁰ Four years later, in 1759, Mr. Prefontaine petitioned for and obtained permission to use a room "in order to teach the French Language to some of the Students and Scholars, who had applied to be taught."¹¹ Apparently Mr. Prefontaine did not continue his class in French very long, for in the report made by the provost to the trustees in 1761 on "the state of the schools" no mention is made of modern languages, although every other subject with the instructor's name is given.¹² The instruction in French was again resumed, however, in 1763, when "the Rev. Mr. Rothenbulla, Minister of the Calvinist Church in this city, having been desired by some of the Scholars to teach them the French Language applied for liberty to make use of one of the rooms of the Academy for that purpose, which was granted him, so long as he did not interfere with any of the school hours."¹³ Presumably, the Rev. Mr. Rothenbulla continued to give instruction to students until 1766, as there is no mention of any change having occurred during that time in the minutes of the trustees. On May 20, 1766, however, we find the following entry: "Mr. Paul Fook was chosen Professor of the French and Spanish Tongues in this College, by the Vote of Fourteen Trustees, immediately after the commencement." It is safe to assert, therefore, that instruction in French, German, and Spanish was given during these years at the College of Philadelphia.

In 1769 French was first introduced at Princeton as an extra-curriculum subject by President Witherspoon,¹⁴ while two years later we find unofficial instruction in German being offered at

⁸*Extracts from the Minutes of Trustees of College of Philadelphia.* Dec. 16, 1753.

⁹*Ibid.*, July 9, 1754.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, July 11, 1755.

¹¹*Ibid.*, January 9, 1759.

¹²*Ibid.*, November 10, 1761.

¹³*Ibid.*, February 8, 1763.

¹⁴*College Records*, 1769.

Salem College in North Carolina. It should be kept in mind that the German language was used extensively in North Carolina by the early settlers, especially in the section where Salem College was established. Thus we see that prior to the establishment at the College of William and Mary of the first department of modern languages in 1779, there were three languages being unofficially taught: French in four, German in two, and Spanish in one.

At this point it is curious to note that as early as 1750 the utilitarian argument in favor of the study of modern languages was clearly and forcefully advanced by Franklin in his *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania*, in which he states: "All (students) intended for merchants should study French, German, and Spanish; and though all should not be compelled to learn Latin, Greek, or the modern languages yet none that have an ardent desire to learn them should be refused." Here we have a plain statement by that farsighted and genial statesman of pre-revolutionary days. Is it strange that today, with our astonishing commercial development, we should still emphasize the commercial value of modern languages?

More striking still are the arguments advanced by no less a personage than Thomas Jefferson. In a letter to Peter Carr, a student at the College of William and Mary, dated in Paris, August 19, 1785, he says that he is sending him a copy of "Baretti's English-Spanish dictionary, a Spanish grammar, and some Spanish books," and adds, "Our future connection with Spain renders that the most necessary of the modern languages after the French. When you become a public man you may have occasion for it."¹⁵ In another letter written to the same young man two years later, Jefferson, referring to the study of Spanish says, "Bestow great attention on this and endeavor to acquire an accurate knowledge of it. Our future connections with Spain and Spanish America will render that language a valuable acquisition."¹⁶ The same year he wrote young Thomas Mann Randolph, then attending the college, "With respect to modern languages, French, as I have observed, is indispensable. Next to this, the Spanish is the most important to an American.

¹⁵H. S. Randall, *Life of Thomas Jefferson*, v. 1, 435-437.

¹⁶Paul L. Ford, *Writings of Thomas Jefferson*, iv, 427-428.

Our connection with Spain is already important and will become daily more so. Besides this, the ancient part of American history is written chiefly in Spanish."¹⁷ It is surprising, indeed, that he should have realized at that early date the real importance of the study of Spanish. Present-day teachers of Spanish have made a great deal of this very argument, little realizing that it had been so clearly stated by one of the leading thinkers of the eighteenth century. Both Franklin and Jefferson felt keenly the great need of studying the modern languages, and we may rest assured that their opinion was shared by the leading men of their time.

In 1779 Jefferson was elected governor of the state of Virginia and member of the Board of Visitors of the old College of William and Mary. Referring to this incident, he says: "On the first of June, 1779, I was appointed governor of the Commonwealth and retired from the legislature. Being elected also one of the visitors of William and Mary College, a self-electing body, I effected, during my residence in Williamsburg that year, a change in the organization of that institution, by abolishing the grammar school and two professorships of divinity and oriental language and substituting a professorship of law and police, one of anatomy, medicine, and chemistry, and one of the modern languages."¹⁸ This change is a significant fact in the history of our higher institutions of learning, for it marks a new trend in higher education. Up to this time the university idea had been unknown in the American colonies, all the higher institutions being organized as colleges or academies. The changes effected practically converted the college into a university.

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(To be continued)

¹⁷Paul L. Ford, *Writings of Thomas Jefferson*, ix, 405.

THE TEACHING OF POETRY

The teacher of English has no more formidable problem than poetry. It seems difficult to realize, sometimes, that a bygone age took its verse naturally with its meals instead of with a groan, as so many of our young people are inclined to do. The present paper will discuss the teaching of poetry, not with the hope of offering a solution for all the difficulties which the theme suggests, but in the spirit of making a practical point or two which may be found helpful or at least provoking.

In general we may say, with a feeling of reasonable security, that the presentation of verse in the classroom has four main aspects. First, there is the matter of formal difference between verse and prose, arising from the simple fact that meter and rime are not normal to the average user of the language and therefore seem strange. Second, reading of verse presents difficulties of a particular kind because the appearance of a poem on the printed page is somewhat unusual, and because the voice must adapt itself to certain strict requirements. Third, we come face to face with a number of dictional oddities, each individual and necessary. Fourth, the most important matter of all is proper aesthetic appreciation, without which the reading of poetry would remain a mere mechanical exercise. Perhaps there are other difficulties. But we are quite safe in saying that the teacher who can manage to get around those we have enumerated will be master of the situation. We shall therefore take them up and discuss them in turn. Space prohibits as a matter of course the fulness of illustration which would be desirable.

I

It requires only a moment's attention to realize that rhythm is responsible for almost all the differences in form between verse and prose. Poetic rhythm uses a set of mechanics which are the spontaneous outcome of necessary principles. If, then, we can manage to see that these mechanics are not at all arbitrary but perfectly natural and normal, they will cease to bother us much.

We distinguish first of all between feet, which are chiefly four

in English poetry—the iamb, the trochee, the anapest, the dactyl. These exist because the language we use calls for them. Speech is an almost effortless process, which does, however, adapt itself with nicety to the energies of the body and the soul. Its cadence bears a definite relation to the circulation of the blood, as that is quickened or slowed by emotion. Now the word “iambic” suggests the French word for leg, which is “*jamb*.” And indeed, when we have read a few lines of iambic verse carefully, we see how naturally it mimics the movement of the leg in walking. The foot is raised and then lowered, raised and then lowered, as we stroll along, just as the short, unstressed syllable is followed by a long, stressed syllable in the iambic measure. The tramp, tramp of a passing company of soldiers has just the same regular beat. Suppose we ask now, What variety of emotion is likely to be combined with walking? Do we walk when we are shouting for joy? Or when we are quickened by intense emotion? We do not, unless we are able to curb our natural instincts. These it is the business of poetry not to curb, and so the iambic measure is the one which best suits the expression of reflection, experience or quiet song. It is in tune with our more ordinary thoughts and feeling, so that it is more commonly employed than any other measure.

The word “trochee” gives itself away. Originally it meant a run, a leap, and this is precisely what it expresses in verse. When we jump we give utterance to a desire to lift ourselves above the earth. We press our feet firmly upon the ground, and then lift them as high as they will go. This procedure is exactly like the long syllable followed by a short of trochaic verse. What does this express? Joy, of course, or excitement, or adventure—just what, once more, we should give utterance to by leaping into the air if we were to obey our natural instincts. Similarly the anapest is only a less stately walk, a kind of two-step. It is almost a frivolous version of the iambic foot, to which it pertly prefixes a short syllable. The dactyl, however—which, as the word indicates, is precisely like a finger, with a long joint and two short ones—is a sort of elaborate leap. It, too, has an element of the dance, but an element more difficult to manage and rather studied. In ancient days, when the minstrel’s fingers moved so speedily over the strings of his

harp, poetry was generally dactyllic, fingerlike. Modern English verse is not often dactyllic, but remains fond of the anapest.

If, then, we have gained a fairly good idea of what feet mean in verse, our next problem will be to see how these feet are combined into lines. Why do some lines have three feet, other four, and still others five or six? Does this happen simply because the poet has made up his mind about the matter and forced us to accept what he gives? Not at all. Here, too, he is following a law of nature rather than a formal requirement. If we read aloud and in turn several passages of verse written in three, ^{3 0 0}four, five and six-foot lines, respectively, it will become very clear that the movement of the verse grows much slower, heavier and more dignified as the lines increase in length. Why? Because the line, too, adapts itself naturally to the thought and emotion expressed by the poet. We may illustrate in some such manner as this: a rubber tube one foot long is much more difficult to inflate than a similar tube three feet long. A short-winded man might succeed with the first, but we would be almost certain to fail with the second. In just the same way, the poet's feeling must be deep and strong, even solemn, to carry through lines of more than five feet. As a matter of fact, six-foot lines are too long to be very common, while three-foot lines are too short. There is a healthy average, which may be found in all the great poets from Chaucer to Tennyson.

It will be noticed almost immediately, however, that few of these poets are absolutely regular in their use of lines and feet. Such a stanza as Tennyson's

Break, break, break,
On thy cold gray stones, O Sea!
And I would that my tongue could utter
The thoughts that arise in me.

presents a great deal of difficulty to anyone who has formed a habit of scanning with a mechanical up-and-down emphasis. Indeed the difficulty is so normal that it is better not to form a habit of regular scansion at all. But what are we to suggest as an alternative? How are we to teach meter unless we do make a practice of strumming iambs and trochees?

Let us see once again what nature has to offer us. We all know that the human voice, like any other manner of sound,

moves in waves. These tend to become regular when expression is instinctively emotional, but do not naturally reach absolute regularity. Only artificial speech has either no cadence (logical prose) or absolutely regular cadence (Pope's couplet). Poetry, therefore, is almost necessarily metrical language with subtle irregularities of meter. Suppose, then, that we mark the syllabic movement of verse-lines with a wave, indicating by downward strokes the long syllables, and by upward strokes the short syllables. Here is a simple example:

THE CURFEW TOLLS THE KNELL OF PARTING DAY

Anapests and dactyls may be indicated by tying nodes or knots in the upward strokes; the spondee by two separate parallel downward strokes. Now if we practice this method of scansion with conscientious faithfulness, we shall soon discover that when the poet, like Tennyson in the stanza quoted above, breaks up the regularity of his rhythm, he does not do so in a haphazard fashion, but with very great care. Almost always the number of upward and downward strokes required by his line are found present—the pause between the two syllables of the spondee usually takes the place of a short syllable—no matter how they may be arranged. The poet is never abrupt, but takes advantage of moments when the natural oddity of a word or phrase will tide over the oddity of rhythm. More could be said about this matter, and it does require patience for its proper understanding. Just now it may be remarked that some such method of scansion is vastly better than the old system of marking long and short syllables, because it is less artificial. Let us keep poetry alive by showing it as it is—not something manufactured with nice machinery, but an art which is close to the nature of man.

The final unit of rhythm is the stanza. Normally the student who has grasped the more basic matters of the foot and the line will not be greatly puzzled by being told that there is abundant variety of stanza-forms, to be used at the poet's discretion. All of these forms are fundamentally artistic—that is, they have resulted from conscious experiments made by poets of the past and so are not dictated by the nature of language. No writer of verse can escape the iamb of the trochee, but

none is required to use the ballad stanza. Nevertheless the stanzas are all valuable. If we begin with some easy form, the limerick for instance, and show clearly how the pointed comic effect it produces is the result of the stanza and how impossible it would be to get the same result with another form, we shall find it easy to continue until we have accounted, at least, for the quatrain, blank verse, the ballad and the sonnet. Let it be observed in passing that it is much more desirable that the student try his own fledgling poetic gift upon the limerick than upon the sonnet. He is quick to understand what the goal of the former is and at least relatively quick to reach that goal; the aim of the latter form, however, is likely to remain something of a mystery to him long after manhood has come.

If, then, we can make the formal differences between verse and prose realizable to the student for what they are; if we can bring him to see that they are not stiff conventions, but native qualities of the speech he uses: we shall at once develop in him the understanding of poetic manner and give him a better, deeper glimpse of the quality of all human expression.

II

Coventry Patmore's *Essay on the Metrical Art* is perhaps the finest and most useful explanation of the rôle played by good reading in the appreciation of poetry. Only the melodious and sensitive human voice can reveal the full beauty of verse, says Patmore, just as nothing but light can make known the loveliness of a painter's canvas. We shall therefore presume that the teacher is familiar with the essay and go on to draw a few conclusions concerning reading and its place in the classroom.

In the first place, it is adequate reading, and that alone, which will help the student over the strange appearance of verse on the printed page. Left to himself, he will invariably halt at the end of a line or miss the texture of a sentence. His emphasis will more than likely be on the wrong word, and he will sometimes misconstrue the sense because his eye has not grasped the pattern of the words on the page. Obviously he must be trained to do better, and as the first principle in such training we may lay down the following rule: the beginning student should be required to read only such poetry as is read aloud to him.

This may seem a rather novel declaration, perhaps, but it is really very ancient. If we let our memories go back to the ages when poetry was really popular, we shall find that very few people read at all, then. The minstrel chanted, the scop sang, the troubadour carolled. In those days poetry was as inseparably bound up with the voice as batteries are with radio in our own time. Does not this fact say something of importance to the teacher? After all, the student is more or less undeveloped, primitive. To expect him to grasp the high and complex art of poetry while himself supplying, imaginatively, a part of its medium, is to expect the impossible. But if his first knowledge of it is made with the help of a teacher who reads understandingly and worthily, he will gradually learn how to listen in his own mind to the silent music of printed verse. Is not this suggestion worthy of a trial? Surely more harm than good is done by expecting a boy or girl to wade through endless narrative stanzas of *The Lady of the Lake* or (a less flagrant error) *Paradise Lost*.

This classroom reading should not be undertaken, however, unless the student has before him in printed form the poem which the teacher is interpreting. Mere declamation is not at all the object here, but *training*—development of the young person's ability to look upon a printed page *as if* it were being read. Perhaps the most practical method is to provide separate mimeograph sheets of each poem used. These sheets have one great advantage over a book of selections—they are always fresh and novel. They are not associated with a volume often looked into and therefore staid, set, and "text-bookish." Practical experience has shown that the student accepts the mimeographed sheets eagerly and can scarcely be induced to keep his eyes off them. Thus the charm of suspense has been created. Of course, if the teacher is unable to profit by a mimeograph machine, some good book of selections will serve the purpose; and by a good book is meant one neither too classical or too heterogeneously assembled. There are volumes which include only the older poets. There are others which seem bent on quoting from every author under the sun, as if there were no educational advantage to be gained from making the student familiar with

great names and great poems before sending him to browse everywhere.

Success will depend very largely upon the power which the teacher has over the expression of poetic language—a power much different from professional “elocution” and which can be developed by intelligent attention to the work in hand, provided the teacher is at all suited to the task. Granted so much, it is important to require the student to repeat aloud the poem as it has been interpreted for him. The mimetic impulse is a worker of miracles. Occasionally the teacher may even find that the student’s reading is better and fresher than his own. If so, the circumstance is very well worth watching. Most likely it is an indication of poetic insight and ability, to discover which in a single student would be ample reward for the year’s work.

The question of grading poems for their use in the classroom is obviously of some importance. We shall offer a list which is, of course, purely tentative, but which is designed to follow the principle that class-room reading should be based upon the relative difficulty of vocal interpretation rather than upon the relative depth of thought-meaning. Blake, for instance, is often unfathomable, but he is comparatively easy to enjoy from the rhythmical point of view. Noyes is not a profound thinker, but he is a subtle modern metrist. And surely the classroom must accept as its first duty the introduction of the student to the metrical beauties of verse. We must teach an art as that art is, and not as a philosophy or a science. Information about a poem may be useful, but it is never poetry. Here, then, is the list:

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| 1. Kilmer's <i>Trees</i> . | 8. Poe's <i>Raven</i> . |
| 2. Stevenson's <i>Requiem</i> . | 9. Miss Guiney's <i>Kings</i> . |
| 3. Burns' <i>Highland Mary</i> . | 10. Tennyson's <i>Break, Break, Break</i> . |
| 4. Lamb's <i>Old Familiar Faces</i> . | 11. Shelley's <i>Skylark</i> . |
| 5. Noyes' <i>Highwayman</i> . | 12. Patmore's <i>Toys</i> . |
| 6. Kipling's <i>Mandalay</i> . | 13. De la Mare's <i>Listeners</i> . |
| 7. Chesterton's <i>Lepanto</i> . | |

It will be readily understood that this list has been graded to emphasize subtlety of rhythmical effect. While Chesterton's *Lepanto* is, indeed, more complex and declamatory than Shelley's *Skylark*, its rhythmical structure is much easier to grasp and

appreciate. Shelley's delicacy of touch and elusive melody are difficult to evoke adequately. Other poets need even a more painstaking interpretation. Patmore, for instance, is an almost unrivalled master of the high art of making poetry out of conversation. To bring out in reading the rare sweetness and shy beauty of his *Toys* is an achievement.

The present writer is convinced that such reading, perseveringly conducted, will do more than all other means available to tighten the student's grip on verse as a natural form of expression. This reading will bring him to see, in the printed lines scattered so eccentrically over a page, the unity of melody and theme which is actually there. For the beginner, the visual effect of verse in type is not unlike the appearance of musical notes arranged for a pianist. We must remove this unfamiliarity, with all it implies, before we can expect from the student very much in the way of poetic enjoyment.

III

The diction of poetry gives rise to a group of difficulties which may be summed up under three heads: choice of words, figurative language, and cadence. Each of these plays its perverse part in helping to make verse alien to the young student who has been accustomed to a simpler and less artistic form of expression. When, for instance, Shelley says,

Pourest thy full heart
In profuse strains of unpremeditated art,

it is easy to see that his use of the term "unpremeditated art" is distinctive and needs interpretation, that the expression taken as a whole is figurative, and that the poet has carefully assembled his vowels and consonants. Nothing could be more dull on the teacher's part than a tossing aside of the two "p's" in this line as "alliteration." Alliteration, even when explained, is a long and dusty word, little more. In quite the same way, it helps very little to suggest what kind of figure the poet has employed. Metaphors, similes and so forth are only rhetorical terms, and constant reference to them may give the student an impression that Mr. Poet is merely proving faithful to a set of rules.

Suppose we give that student, first of all, some glimpse of the difficulties which face the poet trying to express an idea in verse. Suppose we have him write out a little thought in prose about mother, Christmas, or any such simple emotional theme. Suppose he is then asked to restate this thought in a simple four-line stanza. Words suddenly become stubborn and unwieldy. It seems impossible to fit them into the given rhythm, much less to give them coherent sense or beauty. The result is disappointing. How, then, does a true poet succeed in speaking so easily and perfectly? Simply because he knows how to use words in three ways: suggestively, pictorially, and rhythmically.

Shelley writes "unpremeditated art" because this phrase suggests an idea which must get into his poem, but for which there is only the slightest amount of room. He means that the music of the lark has all the finish of a singer who has mastered the difficult business, or *art*, of singing, but that it is nevertheless a music which has required no teacher, no preparation, no thinking about how it ought to be done. All this, Shelley feels, ought to be said about the lark. Summing it up in the phrase "unpremeditated art" is therefore a skilful *suggestion*. It is a kind of intellectual shorthand. Picking out such phrases in number and letting the student guess at what the poet has put into a nutshell is the only sure way of making clear, interesting and familiar this basic rule of poetic art. This process will have a useful by-product, too. It will generally serve to impress all with the hard, thoughtful work which is essential to verse-writing, and so remove the impression that the poet is an idle dawdler. Nothing shows as clearly as poetry does that language is the frame of thought.

Shelley's approach to figurative expression in the lines quoted becomes almost a riot of metaphors when we read further into the *Skylark*. Why does this happen? What explains the poet's fondness for images of all sorts, tossed together helter-skelter and sometimes almost bewilderingly fantastic? Well, it is true, to begin with, that when we wish to give a clear impression of anything we usually resort to comparisons. We say that mother is an angel, that So-and-So is "as big as a house," and that the sunset is like gold. Why do we do these things? First,

because such comparisons save time. Since everybody knows more or less what an angel is and what its qualities are, it is quite sufficient to term mother an angel instead of enumerating all the good things we might say about her. Secondly, these comparisons convey feeling. If mother is an angel to us, it means that we love and respect her, that the thought of her brings with it a sentiment of reverence which could not be suggested by a cut-and-dried summary of her virtues. Thirdly, the right sort of comparison kindles the imagination. An angel is something much easier to *see* than goodness, patience, and cheerfulness.

If we now look carefully at the poet's use of figure, we discover how essential it is to his being a poet at all. Since he is always crowded and cramped for room by the necessities of rhythm, the brevity of figurative language helps him. Thus Shelley can describe the queer effect of the skylark singing so gloriously even though invisible in the skyey distance by calling the bird a "star of heaven in the broad day-light." Then, too, the poet wishes always to convey not merely the bare facts about something but also the glow of feeling which that something kindles; he wishes to express and create impressions and so to give his work life. Finally he must depend upon stirring our imaginations because he wants us to *see* just as sharply as he himself. A somewhat careful examination of a poet's pictorial expression will perhaps do more to reveal the meaning and beauty of what he has to say than any amount of subject-exposition undertaken formally. Real poetry is nowhere so alive as in the flash of comparison.

The matter of cadence is easier to notice than any other aspect of poetic diction, but it is more difficult to explain. Soft, subtle word-music, or powerful Miltonic melody is based upon the knowledge of laws, of course; but what these laws are, or why we enjoy so keenly what they bring into being, must forever remain something of a mystery. No student has been initiated into poetry, however, who has not been taught to observe the dictional charm of lines and passages, whose memory does not pick up and treasure some scraps of the melody, and who does not get at least a hint of the art with which vowels

and consonants may be blended so that the very *song* of a poem helps to convey meaning and emotion. Here, once more, good reading is the teacher's chief resource.

It may not be out of place, however, to note that assistance of a valuable kind may be got from a thoroughly modern invention—the Victrola. There are now quite a few records of noble English lyrics used as songs by eminent artists. If the student, especially when rather young, can hear the poem which he has just read repeated with the accompaniment of music, the result will usually be to impress upon him the close connection there is between the sound of language and all beautiful sound. He will come to see that the cadence he has faintly observed is really and truly present. Nor is such an experiment a waste of time. Surely the teacher's object is not quantity but excellence—to set forth a single poem as it should be set forth is an infinitely more valuable deed than mouthing over all the literature of the world.

IV

The interpretative study of a poem is sure to depend largely upon the teacher's own personality. There are just a few principles which can be asserted with any confidence, and even these might properly lead to much discussion. Some poems are easily analyzed because their intellectual structure is definite. Others practically baffle analysis because what they have to say is either grasped at once or it is not grasped at all.

To begin with, no poem should come before the class done up in wrapping paper. Of what value is the most careful repetition of somebody else's remarks about the meaning of Browning or Keats unless those remarks are the property of a teacher who sees exactly how they help *students* to find a poem clear and enjoyable? Nothing should enter the room that has not been realized. Let good reading be fundamental. If the teacher will try to prepare such reading with the careful fulness with which comments on thought, history and "creative reaction" are usually worked out, half the business of explanation will take care of itself.

Of equal importance is the fact that the discussion must always begin with a poem and not with a poet. "We are now

going to read one of Spenser's most delightful compositions" should never be heard in the classroom. Why? For the simple reason that a class in poetry is not a class in literary history. The mere preliminary mention of the poet's name is often sufficient of itself to shift the emphasis from the masterpiece to the master. Does this mean that there is to be no discussion of the author? Not at all, so long as that discussion follows naturally and where it will do good.

Suppose that the poem under consideration is Poe's *Raven*. We have read and enjoyed it. Now what is the feeling which comes most strongly to the fore? Loneliness, perhaps. It will accordingly be of interest to see in how far this loneliness was attached to the author's personal experience. The pathetic aspects of his story may now be related with especial reference to the details which surround the composition of the *Raven*. Other characteristics of Poe and his work may be gone into if there is time, but the discussion should never depart from a vivid, concrete narrative of those things which are definitely suggested by the poem itself. There are, indeed, some authors whose work cannot well be understood apart from detailed biographical information. Spenser is an instance, and perhaps Shelley is another. The student must realize who the authors were in order to enjoy very deeply the *Faerie Queene* or *The Sensitive Plant*. Normally, however, historical data may safely be given a secondary position.

In the next place, nothing is of greater importance to the proper interpretation of verse than the pictures which are likely to be drawn by the poet. In them is concentrated his vision of nature and life. Collins' *Ode to Evening* is a classic example. The two stanzas which follow are an admirable scene:

But when chill blustering winds, or driving rain,
Forbid my willing feet, be mine the hut
That from the mountain's side
Views wilds, and swelling floods.

And hamlets brown, and dim-discovered spires,
And hears their simple bell, and marks o'er all
Thy dewy fingers draw
The gradual dusky veil.

That is not merely a complete and deft description but a view

of life and of the poet's heart. And if we can compare it with something similar in the way of painted illustration, the meaning of the words and the color which they convey will perhaps be more readily grasped. For whatever can be made concrete succeeds in the classroom; whatever remains abstract flies out the window. No matter how learnedly we remark that a poem is "beautiful," "sublime" or "marvelous," these radiant adjectives will be just so many words until the young heart on the bench is struck and awed.

As a rule we bring, perhaps, too much apparatus to our task. Such things as the poet's "recreation of a tradition" or his "aim to stimulate us to better living," so volubly insisted upon by well-meaning texts, are usually just so much nonsense. The poet may have been moved, of course, by the beauty of something ancient, or stirred to speak honestly in favor of moral truth. But the chances are a thousand to one that he neither sat down to "recreate a tradition" or walked back and forth determined to "stimulate" his fellow-creatures to "better living." Few poets entertain such lofty visions of their importance. Since that is so, why introduce all these artificialities into a room where, above all, the aim is to expand and develop human nature? Why mingle the divine happiness of poetry with cataloguing?

In the end we can only say that poetry is happiness. The teacher who brings it into his domain with that conviction will succeed. After all, Father Tabb practiced the only adequate method. "Gentlemen, did you see that skylark soar? Did you hear him sing?" he is reported to have asked. Indeed, if the youngsters have actually managed to group at Shelley's side for a fleeting vision of the matchless bird of song, they have done all that anybody could reasonably expect of them, even in this ambitious world.

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SCIENCE AND THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

Various centuries have been called the greatest by different writers, and some have gone far to establish the proof of their claims.¹ But to the practical modern man, surely, the century in which we live is the greatest. It has witnessed the greatest war—so productive of new and ghastly destructive materials, and unsurpassed in the numbers involved and affected. It is the greatest in respect to communication, as we may listen in on events as they happen, although thousands of miles away; also from the point of view of speed in traveling. Lately an aeroplane delivered in Washington a plea for pardon mailed the day before in San Francisco and accomplished a stay of execution. Our air service has just circled the globe. Their flying time makes Jules Verne's traveler seem like a tortoise by comparison. Even as I write, the majestic *Shenandoah* tours the country, while the ZR-3 lands safely at Lakehurst.

This is the century of great personal ease and comfort. Life's burdens are lessened by ingenious mechanical devices, some of which relieve man of many onerous duties, while others contribute to his convenience and pleasure.

Wonders of invention never seem to cease. Is there a reason for the present luxuriant crop of everyday conveniences? Yes, surely! Nor is the reason far to seek. Men who labored in the last century, without recompense or recognition in their day, handed on these gifts for our development. Even modern electric lights did not spring glowing from the head of an Edison but are the evolved product of a large research laboratory. These men were theorists, dreamers, or rather, scientists, as distinguished from inventors and engineers. Usually their contemporaries considered them as parasites on the body politic, if not fools. The idea of a man working in a dingy room, foregoing food and rest, without reward, in pursuit of knowledge was incomprehensible. But these are the men who laid the foundations for the development of our wonderful devices. The X-ray tube, that all-piercing eye, the revealer of hidden things, followed a theoretical study, likewise the present vacuum tube,

¹Walsh: *The Thirteenth, Greatest of Centuries*.

called by the scientist a "Triode." Helium gas, which makes the *Shenandoah* safer than an automobile, was discovered by such a scientist.

If abstract and general investigations are necessary to practical advancement, let us ask ourselves what the present generation of scientists is contributing to make this the greatest century from a scientific point of view. A brief survey shows that they have not been idle. One need only mention the theories of atomic structure, the quantum theory and the theory of relativity to prove this point.

Consider the latter far-reaching theory. It investigates the imponderable ether and would do away with it. It would curve all straight lines and make mass a function of the velocity. These are the accomplishments of a man who towers in a forest of intellectual redwoods, Albert Einstein, a German physicist, mathematician, winner of the Nobel Prize and sponsor of the relativity theory. With the publication of one small brochure,² he ushered us from our accustomed surroundings into a new world where all lines are curved, clocks keep diverse times, and a measuring rod has different lengths as its velocity is great or small. But all this is supposed to make no difference to us, the inhabitants. We are all going with the same velocity as these things and hence are in accord with the irregular clocks and variable standard lengths. Even the measurements we make with our peculiar instruments are correct. Our changing apparatus only appears peculiar to one on a different sphere, and that is because the body on which he is passenger has a different velocity from ours.

Not to be outdone by Einstein, a fellow-countryman, Max Plank, also winner of the Nobel Prize, advanced the astounding theory that radiant energy consists of "quanta," which means that light no longer travels in beautiful, symmetrical sine waves, but is broken up in chunks.

Strange to say, this theory has been accepted, which is a great day for the atomists, as energy defied them for a long time; but as the physical concept of matter was changing, they turned their attention to energy; and now it seems to exist only

²Einstein: *The Relativity Theory*. Meuthen.

as small integral, indivisible particles. When the physicists hobbled energy, they tried to metamorphose matter; but, finding it difficult, they rebuilt it in terms of energy, and for this they used electrons. These are the illusive corpuscles of Thomson, which, in the hands of Robert Millikan (our fellow-countryman), have become quite tame and daily work for us in electric lights and radio tubes.

Gilbert N. Lewis, of the University of California, in explaining the properties of atoms, developed a beautiful block structure where the electrons sit at the corners of cubes. Millikan has called this the soap box or "loafer" electron theory. This arrangement has been extended by Irving Langmuir, chief chemist of the General Electric Company, and seems satisfactory. Then Neils Bohr, an inhabitant of that Scandinavian peninsula which produces both intellectual and physical athletes, made these electrons move in the most complicated ways. They can only roam in quantized orbits and can jump from one orbit to another. This well-regulated jumping of electrons from one orbit to another is necessary to explain the mechanism of the radiation hypothesis of Plank.

The arranging of electrons in atoms (called by Somerfeld "atombau") is one of physics' most interesting fields. It has been studied by all classes of scientists. Placing the first ten is easy, but then it becomes difficult. The problem is to locate ninety-two electrons, one by one, around a central nucleus without getting them in each other's way, so the structure will represent the properties of the ninety-two chemical elements. Even if they do not move like Bohr's, still it is complicated. There is also a catch in it. When you have calculated that a certain configuration will work and you have them almost all placed, the nucleus rebels and starts to shoot out electrons and protons^a as fast as they are put in. This gives rise to the phenomenon of radioactivity.

Out of electrons we build atoms; out of atoms, molecules and crystals. The arrangement of atoms in crystals is beautiful. The Braggs, father and son, have taken beautiful pictures of their structure, but one needs an X-ray eye to interpret them.

^aA proton is a positive charge.

In this age even chemical thermodynamics has undergone a change. This is an old, staid branch of physical chemistry founded entirely on experience. But it has recently acquired a third law (?) based on an assumption! Shades of Maxwell, Newton and Euclid! Are the classical theories of dynamics to be overthrown, gravitation made a myth which exists only in the mind of the observer, and the straightest straight line curved? This is not alarming, nor is it revolution; rather is it evolution, a healthy sign of growth. Perhaps, like old and clumsily fashioned keys, eventually we shall have to discard yesterday's scientific laws and accept these new theories which may prove master keys, opening doors on undreamed treasure.

Surely all these theories and hypotheses go to prove that, in this century, more and still more men are working in the fields of abstract and general scientific research. And out of the mass of work accomplished, we feel confident that the coming generations will receive a heritage of no mean value from the scientists of the twentieth century.

SIMON KLOSKY.

SOME PRACTICAL PHASES OF HISTORY TEACHING

No attempt is to be made in the present essay to treat of the teaching of history under such ideal conditions as educational writers devoutly wish should everywhere prevail, but which are hardly realized anywhere in point of fact. The aim of the paper is solely this: to help the history teacher in her everyday work and point out a road to success to persons who are about to start on their educational career as history teachers. Treatises and books on historical method are today numerous and accessible to all; less frequently are the practical conditions considered under which a history teacher must work. A great deal has been said about what should be done; not enough, perhaps, about what can be done under the unfavorable conditions frequently prevalent.

The method adopted for the imparting of historical knowledge must largely depend on certain requirements affecting: (1) The teacher; (2) the pupil; (3) the time allotted to the subject.

Regarding the last two elements, pupils and time, the teacher must, generally speaking, accept them as she finds them. She must take them into account in *mapping out* her work for the academic year, and do this without indulging in useless recrimination or yielding to discouragement owing to the restricted time or the various limitations (age, character) of her pupils. Despite all deficiencies and imperfections found either in herself or in her pupils, despite the defects of the educational system with which she becomes identified, her great aim must be to get results by arousing the attention and stimulating the interest of her pupils day after day in the school year.

She will attain this end more easily if she has herself a special technical training for the teaching of history. Should she, on the other hand, have only a thorough general education and nevertheless undertake the task of teaching history, she ought to realize that she has assumed a very difficult task for which she will need great energy if she wishes to perform it with credit to herself and profit to her pupils. The trained history teacher has completed her remote preparation and only needs to devote her time to the task in hand. The untrained worker has to attend, after becoming a teacher, to a two-fold preparation, the *remote* and *proximate*, for her subject. She

has herself to acquire the knowledge and method of the subject and *at the same time* gradually to impart both to her pupils. It is evident from these requirements that trained teachers, specialists, should not only be preferred, but exclusively employed for such work. But, unfortunately, both necessity and custom have led to the employment of numerous teachers of history not especially prepared in that particular subject. Owing to this unfavorable situation the following suggestions will perhaps not be found superfluous.

In order to get satisfactory results the teacher of history ought to proceed in the following manner:

1. Prepare carefully the lesson which she is to explain to the pupils. Generally no assignment ought to be given to the class without previous explanation by the teacher, who should read the text herself before the period in which the explanations are to be given and should use all the means necessary to have herself a clear and complete understanding of the matter which must be explained. There is this difference between the teacher and the pupil, that for the latter the textbook must be sufficient for all ordinary purposes, whereas for the former it can in no way be an adequate source of information. The teacher must either have already acquired much more information than is generally contained in the text, or, if this should not be the case, she must consult collateral works which will add considerably to the knowledge which can be derived from the textbook used by the pupils. She will thus be enabled to solve the difficulties which may come up in connection with the subjects treated.

2. Explain clearly and systematically the lesson which she assigns for study. The method to be followed in giving explanations may be conveniently summed up under the following heads:

- (a) State the general subject.
- (b) Note the general divisions of the subject.
- (c) Point out to the pupils the important events and persons.
- (d) Indicate the dates to be committed to memory.
- (e) Add interpretations which will help the pupil to understand the text or to remember the contents of the lesson.
- (f) Point out on a map or remind the pupils that they must

look up for themselves certain countries or geographical places.

(a and b) In so far as the first two points, the general subject and general divisions, are concerned, the teacher must point them out and repeat them with unwearied patience so that less mature students may be given the opportunity of acquiring the habit of generalization. The youthful mind is inclined to deal preferably with particulars. The power of generalization, at first very weak, grows with age and is largely acquired by habit. It must be brought out, stimulated, cultivated and developed by the teacher.

(c) In the third division regarding important events or persons immediate results are possible. There is question there of particulars which every mind may grasp, at least to some extent. That Mohammed preached among the Arabs and Charlemagne warred against the Saxons are facts which can be easily understood and almost as easily remembered.

(d) In regard to dates, it would be equally injudicious to omit them all or to require them all of the pupil. The attention they receive from teacher and pupil must be contingent on the relative importance which they have. Some dates ought at once to be insisted upon by the teacher and learned by the pupils; others may be acquired little by little, almost imperceptibly. The most important of them ought to be repeated from time to time. But the question arises here: What are the important dates? How many dates should the teacher insist upon for immediate attention? In deciding this question the following principle will be helpful: The importance must be gauged from the significance of the event and from the extent of its influence. Now the coming of Christ was of universal significance and of permanent influence. The result is that while the precise date of His birth is not known with certainty, the beginning of the Christian Era which has been adopted as a point of departure for the reckoning of time ought to be emphasized. It should always be a point of division in historical periods. In point of fact, however, Christ is almost ignored in the practical arrangements of some paganizing textbooks and in the treatment of historical subjects.

For some reason probably of a practical nature the year 800 is unduly emphasized. History is divided into two parts, one

anterior to that year, the other subsequent to it. These two parts are treated in two separate volumes, the first volume being entitled *Ancient History*, the second *Medieval and Modern History*. In this system, however, the adoption of the year 800 is very objectionable. In the first place it relegates Christ to a position of inferiority. He is lost among many others and receives but scant attention in the company of illustrious pagan heroes. In the second place the word "Ancient" applied to the centuries down to 800 is a misnomer and gives the teacher and pupil an inaccurate idea of the epoch extending from 476 to 800. After 476 the world is no longer ancient, no longer outwardly influenced by Greek science and politically ruled by Roman genius; it is, on the contrary, new and barbarian, especially that western part of it to which attention is chiefly paid in the textbook.

Of course no denial is intended here of the relative importance of the year 800. It may with the date 476 be conveniently used for a subdivision of history. The two dates are so used in the first volume of the present writer's *General History of the Christian Era*, in which the first epoch of the Middle Ages begins in 476 and ends in 800.¹ It may be helpful to the teacher in her choice of dates if added illustrations of this same epoch are here cited.

The initial and the concluding date just mentioned derive their importance from the universal significance of the Roman Empire. They have the advantage of being easily remembered, for they center around the same world-encircling institution: one records the destruction, the other the restoration of the Empire in the West. But while they must receive the greatest attention in the study of the epoch which they mark off, there are other dates which cannot be overlooked. The two years next in importance are 622 and 732: 622 because, recalling the Hegira or Flight of Mohammed, it marks the beginning of a special system of reckoning time for millions of his followers; 732 because, as the year of the battle of Tours, it is a landmark in the history of the struggle between Christians and Mohammedans, between West and East.

After these leading dates, the chronology of the reigns of some

¹N. A. Weber, *A General History of the Christian Era*, Vol. I, 3d ed. (Washington, 1922), pp. 69-122.

civil or ecclesiastical rulers ought to be considered. In studying the dates of such reigns and in helping the students to memorize them, an excellent method would be to connect them, if possible, with an already known date. This can be easily accomplished in the present instance. Thus there is no difficulty whatever in bringing the reign of Theodoric I, The Ostrogoth, into relation with the fall of the Western Empire. The latter was destroyed in 476 by Odoacer; but Odoacer himself was killed by Theodoric with his own hand, and thus the former's tragic end in 493 marks the beginning of the rule of Theodoric the Great over Italy. This reign lasted from 493 to 526 and came to an end about the time when another ruler surnamed *the Great* began to reign as emperor in the East. This remarkable statesman was Justinian I, the Great, who ascended the throne one year after the death of Theodoric and died in 565 (reign 527-565).

Although the East attracts the teacher's attention immediately after the death of Theodoric the Great, the fact must not be overlooked that Clovis, a Teutonic king contemporary with Theodoric, also achieved success in the West. The founder of a dynasty, Clovis ruled the Franks from 481 to 511. While of the same race as Theodoric, he was of a different Christian faith. Clovis was a Catholic, while Theodoric was an Arian. The difference of religion was of vast importance in the development and history of their respective peoples.

With the reign of Justinian the Great the student is easily brought to 622, one of the four original dates. For shortly after the great emperor's death in 565 the leader was born, in whose life the year 622 played a decisive part. Mohammed was born at Mecca in 570, fled from Mecca to Medina in 622, and died in 632. While the power which he exerted over the Christians was detrimental, he exercised to some extent a beneficial influence on the wild and idolatrous Arabs. The Christians had at the same time an extraordinary man at their head in the person of Pope Gregory I, the Great (590-604). Although a Roman he viewed with the greatest sympathy and love the Teutonic barbarians from whom Rome had suffered so much, and it was he who brought about the conversion of the Lombards and particularly that of the Anglo-Saxons.

As Gregory I sent St. Augustine to the Anglo-Saxons, so his

namesake and successor, Gregory II, sent St. Boniface to the Germans. This brings us to the year 732. It was the mayor of the palace, Charles Martel (714-741) who defeated the Saracens in that memorable year. He rewarded his soldiers with ecclesiastical benefices, an abuse which brought him into conflict with the zealous Boniface (680-755).

St. Boniface helps us also to remember the transition from the Merovingian to the Carolingian dynasty, for it was he who anointed Pepin the Short as king in 751, and with the imperial coronation of the son of Pepin, Charles the Great or Charlemagne, we come in 800 to the end of this period.

(e) Add the interpretations which help the pupil either to understand the text or to remember the contents of the lesson.

To complete her work the teacher ought to add necessary and useful interpretations wherever needed. It may be observed in this connection: (1) that certain words convey to the modern pupil a meaning different from that which they had in the Middle Ages; instances in point are: Knights Templars, investiture; (2) that greater or lesser importance attaches to the meaning of other words and expressions for persons of our own day, as for example: the right to fight or private warfare, a plenary indulgence; (3) that some terms are difficult to understand owing to changed conditions, for example, the expression: freedom from civil jurisdiction.

In this connection also the saying of Cardinal Newman ought to be remembered: "Particularity brings a thing home to the mind." Things of a striking character ought to be used to help the memory. Thinking ought to be stimulated by asking the pupils to compare or contrast men, events, institutions or times.

(f) Finally, historical geography should not be neglected; it will be of great assistance in getting the pupils interested in their work. Its study is almost essential in the history of European countries where the political boundaries have undergone so frequent and such important changes in the course of ages. Charts or maps or both ought to be frequently used and every available means at the disposal of the teacher employed to obtain the best results and produce the liveliest interest in the pupil for things historical.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CERTAIN SILENT READING TESTS—II

(Continued)

COURTIS RESEARCH TESTS IN SILENT READING, NO. 2

Three equivalent forms which may be used interchangeably are available for the Courtis test. Each form consists of two parts, one for measuring rate, the other, comprehension. For testing the latter phase of reading, the selection is divided into short paragraphs, each followed by five simple questions to be answered by "Yes" or "No." These questions are all of the factual type and as the subject has an opportunity to reread, only factual comprehension in careful reading is measured. Courtis in his measurements confines reading ability to "observational" reading; he restricts it to skill in mechanics and intends his test to be a means of determining the degree of control exercised by the child over the reading mechanism.

Several objections are advanced against the method of measuring rate by the Courtis plan. There is absolutely no means of "Checking up" upon the quality of the pupil's reading. He may be skimming, skipping, or laboriously plodding without extracting the least degree of meaning from what is being read. The plan of having the pupil pause at intervals and indicate the word he is then reading is only partially satisfactory. The repeated signal somewhat distracts the subject and his reading is suspended at least long enough to allow him to mark the place at which he has presumedly arrived. Thus a normal reading situation is not secured and information concerning his usual rate is not obtained. Again, there is no direct evidence that the pupil is accurately noting the point he has reached. Many teachers question the rate score determined in this way. After taking the first test the child realizes that he will have an opportunity to reread before answering the questions; this somewhat lessens the usefulness of the other forms of the tests subsequently administered. In not a few of the present cases the reading of the story was accomplished before the expiration of the allotted three minutes. It would thus appear that the test

is almost too easy to be employed in the sixth grade as a measure of speed of ordinary reading. Some of the fundamental elements inherent in silent reading ability are unquestionably measured by this test for the coefficients resulting from the correlation of its rate scores with the composites are significant (Av. 0.707).

Much adverse criticism has been directed against the method of ascertaining the Index of Comprehension. This is found by dividing the difference between the right and the wrong answers by the number of right answers. This practice of obtaining a score by subtracting the wrong from the right responses is one very commonly employed in many of our current tests, those belonging to what is known as the true-false type. Critical study of the fundamental principles underlying this method of scoring affords the information that they are based upon the assumptions that guessing is one of the chief activities functioning in the pupil's reaction to the requirements of the test; that all unknown answers and all wrong answers are guesses. This supposed preponderance of guessing has led to the unjust penalizing of the pupil for wrong answers. A great deal of attention has recently been given to the making and scoring of true-false tests, and the almost universal conclusion is that the present method of marking is, to say the least, highly unsatisfactory. The Curtis comprehension test is an application of this type of test, and the method of marking is substantially the same as that just described. Until a means of procuring a truer estimate of the pupil's power to understand is afforded, the Curtis must be considered an inadequate measure for comprehension.

Stone¹⁰ considers the mechanical composition of the test faulty. The size of print is larger than that regularly met with in textbooks, the spacing between the letters is unusually great, and the lines are crowded too closely together. The rate, especially for the very young subject, is apt to be decreased because of these defects. The arrangement of the two parts of the test is such as to cause its skillful manipulation to be rather difficult. The relatively low correlation existing between the Curtis and the Monroe is surprising, for both use factual questions and

¹⁰Stone, C. R., "Silent and Oral Reading." New York, 1922, p. 239.

neither depends in the slightest degree upon memory. The difference in material and in method may partially account for this low correlation.

The commendable features of the Courtis test may be summed up as follows: They are quite objective as regards their administration; little time is needed for these operations; answer cards, tables, and reliable standards are available; the material is interesting; the cost is small, and more than one form is issued. A complete revision of the test is advisable. They are comparatively old and since their construction much has been learned about the reading process and its measurement. Methods of teaching silent reading have greatly improved in the past few years and a considerable mass of information has accumulated as a result of the progress made in the field of experimental education. It is, therefore, only reasonable to demand newer tests built upon the broader principles established through recent study and investigation.

THORNDIKE-MCCALL READING SCALE (1920)

The Thorndike-McCall scale is a power test assuming to measure ability to comprehend increasingly difficult material, as well as to determine skill in using reading for a specific purpose. An attitude similar to that created by the study situation is demanded for a successful performance. A pupil's aptitude in selecting specific definite details is revealed rather than his ability to grasp relational ideas or total meanings. A supposition has been advanced that a student mechanically inferior in reading can earn a high score on this test provided he has a considerable amount of general mental ability. This achievement appears to be possible, for mechanics in reading mainly determines speed and this factor is not taken into account in the Thorndike-McCall. As regards the second part of the above contention, the results of the present testing show quite high correlation between the T-Score and the Intelligence score. (0.694 ± 0.04 and 0.653 ± 0.06). Gates¹¹ suggests that the Thorndike-McCall is "probably a measure of one sort of 'verbal intelligence' and is, on that account, one of our most useful tests."

¹¹Gates, A. I., *op. cit.*, p. 384.

Efficiency in measuring reading progress by the monthly administration of the various forms is often adduced as a superior feature of this test. Some degree of advancement can be ascertained by this practice, but the units employed in the construction of the test are too coarse to make it very reliable as a means for measuring improvement in reading.

As comparatively few of the questions are within the grasp of a normal fourth-grader, most of the pupils used only a very small part of the time allotment. Some students of Educational Measurements question the advisability of having a single scale for measuring such a spread of ability as that exhibited by the performances of grades four to twelve. They assert that the test might be more useful if it were divided into two or three parts each including a narrower grade group. On the other hand, a test having a wide range serves as an admirable measure for comparison and provides for a more extensive prediction.

The Thorndike-McCall does not purport to measure rate; therefore the correlation with the rate tests is very low. In this study the average coefficient of correlation between this test and the composite, 0.624, is higher than that for any of the other reading tests except the Chapman-Cook. The objectivity of the test is not as high as that for most of the tests here discussed, for the answers may take several forms and some doubt is apt to arise as to the accuracy of certain replies. However, the virtues of the Thorndike-McCall far outweigh the defects, and it is without doubt one of the most efficient of our measures of comprehension in silent reading.

THE STONE SERIES OF NARRATIVE READING TESTS (1922)

The Stone series are designed to measure ability to grasp the main points in a narrative at a single reading, and at the same time to measure the rate at which the whole is read. The test for the lower grades contains two stories followed by ten questions. Under each question five answers are listed and the subject is directed to select the correct response. The answers are to be indicated without any re-reading.

A specialized type of reading ability in which memory plays a most important part is measured here. By some students of reading ability a test involving a large degree of memory is

considered as a rather less satisfactory measurement than one in which this faculty is not required to function to any great extent.

Others include memory among the essential factors in comprehension which should be carefully measured. The test is difficult to administer and in the present instance confusion on the part of the pupils was evident as to exactly what performance was exacted of them. There are so many items to be explained and remembered—the story in the pamphlet, the record sheet with its requirements, the rate score exhibited by the examiner, and the questions to be checked. The directions to be read by the class and the teacher are too long; the attention of the pupils wandered and the results were thus only partially satisfactory. As no time control is exercised in the comprehension test re-reading cannot be prevented. Despite instructions to the contrary it is quite evident that a few of the children did some re-reading before marking the answers.

Roback¹² takes exception to the method of listing a number of responses and having the child check the appropriate one. He maintains that "a bright individual who would respond to a natural query in an offhand, yet correct manner, might become distracted at the absurd possibilities offered and in consequence fumble about before making a final reaction. It would appear that the more direct and original a person is, the more apt he would be to flounder. The mediocre person here gains the advantage over the superior intellect. Other factors which count are suggestibility, motor-coordination in manipulating the pencil, and rapidity of decision. The intellectual . . . would take a longer time to decide between two alternatives either of which something might be said in favor of, whereas he might have readily arrived at a sound conclusion, if the alternatives were not suggested to him." Although the situation prevailing in the present case is not strictly identical with that referred to by Roback, yet sufficient resemblance exists to warrant a consideration of the advisability of suggesting so many answers as the test in question does. However, if unaided memory were permitted to function, another difficulty might arise concerning the

¹²Roback, A. A., "Subjective Tests vs. Objective Tests." *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Nov., 1921.

objectivity in scoring. As the test stands almost perfect objectivity is assured as the pupil's answer is entirely controlled; it is abbreviated, only one response is admissible, and its spatial location is exactly designated.

The method of gauging the rate insures a continuous reading free from interruptions and distractions in the form of commands to "Mark," etc. The attitude thus secured approaches that of the normal reading situation. Correlations between the rate and the Courtis rate are high, average 0.655, and this is to be expected as the materials of the two tests are similar, that of the Stone being somewhat more difficult. If correlation with a composite is assumed as a valid criterion, this test is a fair measure of speed of reading of the non-study type. There is a surprisingly low correlation between rate and comprehension; this is the one test in which there appears to be no relation between these two main factors of silent reading. This may be due to the fact that these children have not been trained in the memory phase of comprehension, or memory may not be a representative factor in comprehension as tested by this series.

The story content is interesting and appeals to the pupils of the early grades. The norms are only tentative owing to the recency of publication. The initial cost is rather high, but as the booklets are designed to be used repeatedly and as the same set of time cards last indefinitely re-testing or testing of new classes may be done with very little additional expense. The use of the same pamphlets for numerous testings is a doubtful economy from the hygienic viewpoint. If the details of administration were reduced and the recording of the answers and rate simplified, the test would be much more useful. More extensive data must be supplied before any very definite conclusions can be reached regarding this test especially as a measure of comprehension.

CHAPMAN-COOK SPEED OF READING TEST (1923)

Thirty paragraphs each containing thirty words constitute this test. In the second half of each exercise an incongruous word appears. This the pupil is directed to cross out. The character of the response demanded by the construction of the Chapman-Cook differs fundamentally from that of all the previous tests.

It eliminates an objection often registered against so many of our tests in that it does not involve the ability to answer questions. Thorndike,¹³ among others, regards this as a highly specialized ability. A pupil capable of readily grasping the meaning of the question or of easily formulating a reply would secure a much higher score than one not possessing these powers, although the real capacity for deriving the meaning from the reading material is identical in both cases. However, it is agreed that this specific skill improves with practice, and thus the limitations of the question as a device for measuring comprehension will be removed.

The material used in the test makes an immediate appeal to the pupils. In this experiment so great was the interest aroused that the children begged to be permitted "to read the rest of the jokes" after the signal to stop had been given. In form the test is not attractive. It is so large as to be unwieldy and the first page is highly confusing owing to the number of items printed thereon—arrangements for name, age, etc., directions, norms, and pre-drill. This array distracts the very young subject and some time is lost in an attempt to restore his mental equilibrium.

Speed and accuracy of reading are the powers presumed to be determined by the application of this test. Should the subject read one or more paragraphs and fail to cancel the absurd term, no credit would be gained for the reading of those exercises. His real speed would not be ascertained. Correlation with the composite for rate (Av. 0.502) show that as a measure of speed this test ranks lowest in the group employed. On the contrary, the average coefficient with the comprehension composite, 0.661, is larger than that for any other reading test. Further investigation may possibly yield the information that this is a good test, mislabeled. Other commendable features of this scale are the rapidity, ease and objectivity with which the scoring process may be accomplished, the facility of administration, and the relatively small cost. If the directions and standards were available in separate form, the size reduced, and

¹³Thorndike, E. L., "Reading as Reasoning." *J. of Ed. Psy.*, 1917, pp. 323-332.

the mechanical make-up rendered more attractive the test would be much improved. No absolute judgments as to the merits or demerits of the Chapman-Cook can be formulated as a result of its trial in so narrow a sphere as the present testing program.

READING VOCABULARY TEST BY S. L. PRESSEY (1921)

An excerpt will elucidate the content of the Pressey test. "How does a coward feel?—afraid, happy, sad, well." "What is a monarch?—a lady, a king, a beast, a friend." The correct word is to be encircled. There are thirty such questions and as many as possible are to be answered in eight minutes. The test is for use in grades two to four inclusive.

Three perfect scores are recorded; there are few low marks; all of the scores are less scattered than for most of the other scales. A glance at the portion of Tables 1 and 2 repeated below will reveal surprisingly high correlations with the measures of comprehension, excepting Stone in School "A," and Courtis in both schools.

	C. Cook	T. McC.	Mon. I	Mon. II	Stone	Courtis
School "A".....	0.680	0.663	0.584	0.609	0.426	0.380
	.04	.04	.05	.05	.06	.07
School "B".....	.595	.642	.448	.626	.560	.325
	.07	.06	.09	.06	.08	.10

The average coefficient of correlation with the composite for comprehension is larger than that for any reading test except Chapman-Cook and Thorndike-McCall. This would seem, in the case of the tests employed, to support the contention of Gates¹⁴ that "in the mass, knowledge of word meaning is positively associated with reading ability," although "the correlations are not sufficiently high to make a vocabulary test an adequate measure of it." Coefficients of 0.668 ± 0.06 and 0.643 ± 0.05 show a somewhat close relation between the scores on the Pressey and those on the National Intelligence Scale. The degree of correlation may be partially influenced by the fact that success in some of the exercises of the latter test demands a rather

¹⁴Gates, A. I., *op. cit.*, p. 456.

extended acquaintance with word meaning. Possibly similar forms of mental activity function in the performances elicited by these tests. A prediction may be ventured that further experimentation with the vocabulary test in connection with the Pressey Speed of Reading Test may establish its value as a not inadequate measure of certain phases of silent reading ability.

The interpretation of results is a very complex process and is quite difficult of attainment. Great care must be exercised in making deductions from correlation coefficients, especially in this study where the data are rather meager, including the results obtained from a relatively small number of cases in only two schools. These results may not be representative; errors in the original scores due to chance mistakes may explain some of the low correlations; and other irregularities may be caused by the fact that more or less closely related activities are assuredly tested in addition to reading ability. Although it is not safe to draw far-reaching and very general conclusions, a few inferences issuing from the study of the data here recorded may appropriately be stated.

All of the tests discussed measure essential and fundamental phases of reading, some more, some less successfully. As they do no attempt to measure the same phases their adequate comparison is difficult. Taken together, they form a rather satisfactory battery of reading tests. Almost every conceivable variation of scores appears from the application of these tests; these variations may be the result of inefficient training on the part of the school, or they may be due to defects in the tests themselves. The exceptionally high correlation between the National Intelligence and the comprehension composite (Av. 0.706) doubtlessly indicates that this measure of intelligence tests many of the elements presumed to be contained in reading ability. It would be an enlightening as well as a fascinating study to pursue this subject further and determine more definitely to what degree general intelligence and efficiency in reading are allied. Inferring from the correlations, this intelligence scale is a more valid measure of ability to comprehend than any of the so-called reading tests.

An average correlation of 0.576 for the Pressey Vocabulary

with the comprehension composite seems to show that the test is a fairly satisfactory means for determining ability to comprehend. The chief defect in the Courtis is the method of scoring. Another limitation is the narrow range; it is applicable to only grades two to six. Its principal use is as a measure of speed without reference to the degree of meaning extracted from the reading. The Stone test appears to measure rate of reading quite successfully. As a gauge of comprehension it is not so desirable unless memory is considered as an outstanding characteristic of this mental ability. The assumption drawn from these applications of the Chapman-Cook is that it is more useful in measuring ability to understand written ideas than in determining rate. These two newer tests must be subjected to much further critical and statistical treatment before any very definite conclusions can be reached.

From the standpoint of validity, objectivity, and general usefulness, and inferring from the results of both the present study and from information collected from other investigations, the Monroe Tests are conceded to be the most excellent of the now existing measures for determining a combination of rate and comprehension. If a test is desired for diagnostic purposes without any reference to speed, the Thorndike-McCall is the scale to use.

In general, judging from the correlations of the several tests with the composites, the reading tests here discussed seem to be most efficient as instruments for determining speed in reading. This is not to be wondered at as speed is the factor in the reading activity that lends itself more readily to direct and objective measurement. The chief problem in the reading department of Educational Measurements awaiting future solution is the improvement of the present comprehension tests or the formulation of new and more accurate standards for measuring this highly complex but most essential element in silent reading ability.

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CLASSICAL SECTION

This section aims first of all to act as a bureau of information for teachers of the Classics, particularly those of Catholic schools. Questions sent to me will be answered in these columns or by personal letter, or they will be turned over to persons fully qualified to give them proper consideration. It aims also to keep its readers informed of the most important movements and events in the world of the Classics, especially such as have bearing on the teaching of Latin and Greek in secondary schools.

Notes on Ecclesiastical Latin (Continued)

III. Adverbs

The most important adverbial endings which are used to form new adverbs with the stems of nouns and adjectives are *e*, *ter*, *tim*. Some diminutive adverbs are also formed from diminutive nouns and adjectives. Such formations exist in the literature of the classical period, but many new ones appear in the works of the fathers, of which examples are:

invalidē, "feebly." *allegorice*, "allegorically."

ambiformiter = *ambigue*. *guttatim*, "drop by drop."

commodule = *commode*.

IV. Verbs

Most of the new verb formations among the fathers are verbs in *-are*. The tendency to form verbs in this manner seems to have increased as the language grew older. Such verbs are usually considered in the following categories: (1) verbs derived from nouns and adjectives (or participles), (2) frequentative verbs in *-tare*, or *-itare*, (3) inchoative verbs in *-scere*, and (4) compound verbs. Examples are:

auctificare, "increase honor by offerings."

augustare, "render venerable."

flatare (*flare*) "blow."

victitare (*vivere*), "live," "feed."

rancescere (*rancere*), "grow rancid."

coarticulare, "make pronounce distinctly."

V. Greek and Foreign Words

In first century of our era Greek words entered the Latin language in great numbers. In fact, in Africa, Greek held precedence over Latin. Tertullian wrote in the two languages, and coined many Latin words on the analogy of Greek words. The influence of Greek as well as Hebrew was also felt indirectly through the Latin translations of Scripture. Punic, Phrygian, etc., exercised a much less important influence.

Examples:

antitheus (ἀντιθεός), "one who pretends to be God."

cnisa (κνισα) "the smoke from sacrifice."

deitas (θεότης), "divinity."

On Tuesday, December 16, at 4.30 p. m., in the Assembly Room, McMahon Hall, Dr. A. Souter, of the University of Aberdeen, Scotland, gave a lecture on "Saint Augustine." Dr. Souter treated first the life of the Saint, giving his audience a point of view quite reasonable, yet totally different from the attitude usually assumed. Augustine's life, before he became a Christian, is to be measured by the standards of morals among the pagans of his time, and not by the standard of God according to which he views himself in the Confessions. Professor Souter then discussed Augustine's version of Scripture, his influence during the ages, and some features of his style.

Dr. Souter is the world's leading scholar of the language of St. Augustine, and he honored the Catholic University by paying several splendid tributes to the series of "Patristic Studies" in progress there.

Students of language will be interested in the formation of a Linguistic Society of America, organized at the American Museum of Natural History, New York City, on Sunday morning, December 28, 1924. The American Philological Association, the American Oriental Society, the Modern Language Association, the American Anthropological Association, and other learned societies in related fields have shown hospitality to linguistics, but the fact existed that linguistic scholars did not meet but scattered to the various associations mentioned above. Much

encouragement and inspiration were thereby lost. A medium of publication devoted entirely to linguistics is planned for some future time.

The Committee on Medieval Latin Studies, formerly an independent group, has become a special committee of the American Council of Learned Societies. A bulletin which has just been issued reporting conditions, progress, and plans for the future, may be procured by writing to George R. Coffman, Secretary, 1191 Boylston Street, Boston, Mass.

An important project well under way is a Journal of Mediaeval Studies, which will lay main emphasis on contributions which shed light upon (1) mediaeval life and thought as set forth in historical, literary, or philosophical texts; (2) the history or appreciation of mediaeval Latin texts which lay claim to independent literary worth or interest; (3) reviews of books, monographs, and important articles dealing with the above; (4) a comprehensive and classified bibliography of publications in the field of Mediaeval Latin.

The forty-third year of the American School at Athens began on October 2. This day, being the anniversary of the original opening, was celebrated by appropriate exercises. Prof. Harold North Fowler, of Western Reserve University, who is one of the two Annual Professors this year and is taking up his duties as editor-in-chief of the Corinth publications, happens to have been the first student registered in the school, and in an informal talk, spoke of the difference between the life of the student in 1882 and present conditions for study in Greece. The Director, Dr. B. H. Hill, outlined the work for the year, and Prof. James Turney Allen, of the University of California, who is the regular Annual Professor for the year, announced his course of lectures on problems connected with the Greek theater.

The definitive plans for the school's excavations in the spring of 1925 have not yet been made, but it is certain that the extraordinary activity of 1924, when for the first time since the war any undertaking of magnitude was possible, will be continued and extended. Under the immediate direction of Dr.

T. Leslie Shear, and by funds provided by him, work will be begun on the theater at Corinth, whose ruins lie deeply buried on the slope below the Temple of Apollo, and probably another section of the Agora will be uncovered by Dr. Hill, who will be in general charge of the excavations. Other scenes of activity will be ancient Nemea, Argive Heraeum, and Phlius in Arcadia.

For a more detailed account of the activities of the school, see *Art and Archaeology* for December.

Miss Ella Frances Lynch, founder of the National League of Teacher-Mothers, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania, has achieved real success in teaching Latin to the seven-year-old students of her school. She has ready for distribution (price \$1.00) *The Orbis Vivus, Introductory Lessons*, which comprises eighteen typewritten sheets, that are the results of her many years of experience in teaching Latin to young folks.

I would call special attention to "Auxilium," a help to the understanding of the ceremonial of the Church in Latin and English, with an appendix of familiar prayers, compiled from approved sources by a Sister of Charity, Cincinnati, Ohio. It is a volume of over 300 pages and of pocket size. The publisher is Frederick Pustet Company, Inc.

This volume will be of great interest to the intelligent layman, seriously concerned about knowing thoroughly the ceremonies he attends. It will also be of service to the teacher who would correlate the study of classical Latin with an understanding of the Latin of the Church.

A few copies of the Latin translations of Nursery Rhymes made by Basil Anderton are still available upon request at the Latin Department of the University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

At the Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, Ind., the pupils who pass first-year Latin with a low grade and who will not

take more than two years of Latin are put into a special second-year class (Caesar Ia) in which the emphasis is on English derivatives rather than grammar and translation, which are emphasized in the regular class (Caesar IIa). A short descriptive bulletin, entitled "Purposes, Methods, and Results of Caesar Ia and Caesar IIa Courses in Shortridge High School" may be obtained free by sending a stamped, addressed envelope to its author, Mr. E. M. Hughes, of the Shortridge High School.

The following portions of the Report of the Syllabus Committee of the New York Classical Club are indicative of a slight reaction against certain marked tendencies of recent times in the teaching of Latin:

(4) Throughout the course, less stress should be laid than at present on derivation work. This work, further, should be so directed as to be helpful to the student in his understanding of Latin rather than of his mother tongue.

(9) We recommend that the present examination in Latin, First Two Years, be changed. The Speed Test should be abolished and its form-work should be incorporated in the body of the examination, with a valuation of about 10%. The present large number of credits given to Derivation should be decreased, and the character of the question itself should be changed. The credits thus set free might well be allotted to an increased amount of sight translation.

(10) We agree in general with the present third year syllabus, but ask specifically here that the immoderately large number of words in the list that are not found in the prescribed reading be replaced by words actually occurring. *We also desire that stress be laid on training for sight translation.* But we do not think that this necessarily means special selections and special time. We rather think that the whole trend of teaching should aim at making the pupils treat their work, assigned or not, as training for the attack of a passage not seen before. We approve, in general, of the present examinations for this year. We desire a revision of the content and antiquities prescription in the direction of simplification, and the elimination of topics that seem to have crept in fortuitously; the revision should be such that these topics shall bear a vital relation to the Speeches read. *Lastly, we desire more stress than heretofore laid on style and structure, with a prescription of certain rhetorical terms to be treated during the recitation.*

Recent books of interest to teachers of the Classics are:

General Language, a series of lessons in grammar, word study, and history of the English language for Junior High Schools, by S. A. Leonard and R. F. Cox. Rand McNally and Company.

Some Problems in Roman History, by E. G. Hardy. London, Milford.

The Catilinarian Conspiracy, by E. G. Hardy. Oxford: Blackwell.

Folklore Studies: Ancient and Modern, by W. R. Halliday. Methuen.

Among the subjects discussed are children's singing games and seasonal songs in classical Greece, modern Greek carols, certain resemblances between a classical and a mediaeval romance, the common origin of a Byzantine carol and a modern legend, and the characteristics of the gypsies of the Balkan area.

Latin Unseen Traps, a list of Latin words easily confused, by H. G. Ford. Methuen.

ROY J. DEFERRARI.

AFFILIATED HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE SECTION

OFFICIAL

The chief mission of the high school is to fit its students to take their places in that complex and ever-changing life, which is ushered in by "Commencement." An analysis of the above brings home the fact that the demands of the school are ever subject to influences, resulting from both the constants and the variables in social progress. The school therefore can rightly be said to be a reflection of the world of which it is both a preparation and a part. By properly performing its function the school becomes in turn a most potent factor in shaping our social development. Through its work of forming the characters of its pupils, it becomes both a director and protector of life's purposes.

As a result of this interaction of school and society, educational aims and practices are always in a process of adjustment. The elements of culture and science, the means employed by the school to realize its purposes, are gradually being increased. The effects of our scientific progress are constantly being felt as forces, which are modifying the curriculum. The barriers of space and time have been practically annihilated by the modern means of communication and travel. Peoples once foreign to one another are now much more intimately associated in commercial, governmental and social relationship. The immediate effect of these influences, as far as the schools are concerned, is to be seen in the increasing value and prominence which are being given to the study of modern languages.

During the past quarter of a century the modern languages have been growing gradually into important and influential elements in the curriculum. The causes which have produced this situation are many and varied. Some of them are of a cultural, others of a utilitarian type; some are the outgrowth of international conditions, others of immediate local needs. All have combined to place several of the languages of European countries among the subjects offered to the students of our American high schools.

In accordance with the above, The Catholic University, ever alert to the needs and demands of the people it serves and in

particular those high schools which have affiliated with it, has through the Committee on Affiliation placed the Polish language among the high school subjects, approved and outlined in the Syllabus on Affiliation.

The Polish language is rich in literary, historical and scientific lore. It has as noble a literature as any of the countries of Europe, and embodied in it are those noble traditions which have won for Poland the undisputed title of "Champion of Christendom" in eastern Europe. The Polish is the national tongue of those who for centuries served as the bulwark against Tartar and Moslem inroads and power. It is the vernacular of a Copernicus, immortal in science, of a Pulaski, the hero of Brandywine and of a Kosciuszko to whom we owe, in no small measure, our American freedom and national selfhood.

Among those who became citizens of the then young country of America is found the name of Julian Niemcewicz, one of Poland's patriots and poets. Coming closer to our own times, history shows us that those whose mother tongue was Polish played a fair and worthy rôle in shaping our common and Catholic life. In our southern states as well as in our northern and eastern sections are to be found many of Poland's sons and daughters. Steadily from 1854 to the present time has immigration from this cultured and ancient land brought much of that which our country can rightly prize. Their industry, thrift, love of education and their morality are among the finest contributions which Europe has made to our slowly forming American type and life.

The great work of Kalusowski during the war of '61-'65 and in our purchase of Alaska should never be forgotten. In this great civil strife, as well as in our struggle in 1776, men of Polish tongue and lineage did yeomen service. Men like Zalinski, General Krzyanowski and Joseph Smolinski, the youngest of our cavalry officers, hold an honored place in our civil war records.

Among those of Polish descent whose names are recognized in art and literature might be mentioned that of Paderewski in music, Sienkiewicz in letters, Modjeska and her contributions to the American stage and the sculptors, Dmochowski and Chodzinski, who have left in chiseled stone in our national capitol and in Chicago worthy testimony to a people whose love for the ar-

tistic is exceeded only by their love for their language and their religion.

The following outline of Polish as a modern language has been approved for our affiliated high schools. Examinations in this subject will be prepared for those who request them for the examinations to be given in May, 1925. The regulations governing the credit bearing value of this subject are the same as those laid down for the other approved modern languages. For further details on this point see regulations Nos. 1 and 2, page 2; Nos. 6, 8, 9, and 10, page 4; and those stated on pages 47 and 48 of the Syllabus on Affiliation.

Polish

(Course of four years. Four hours per week)

First Year

Elements of grammar. Declensions and conjugations. Inflection of nouns, pronouns, adjectives and verbs. Exercises both written and oral should be given daily. Dictation. Correct pronunciation is requisite. Reading of easy texts both prose and poetry. Memorizing of easy poetry and short prose passages. The readings should be selected from the standard Polish collections from the classical authors such as Czubek and Zawilinski, Mecherzynski.

Second Year

Advanced study of grammar. Etymology and syntax. Irregular verbs. Correct use of coordinate and subordinate sentences. Compositions and frequent written exercises should be given. The required readings in prose and poetry may be chosen from the "Wypisy" of Prochnicki, Badzkiewicz, Lagowski.

Third Year

Study of rhetoric. Theory of style. Versification. Compositions and essays. Attention should be given to the correct use of Polish idiomatic expressions. Required readings of 400 to 500 pages of prose and poetry from the classical authors such as Kochanowski, Skarga, Pasek, Konarski, Naruszewicz, Krasicki, Trembecki, Niemcewicz, Brodzinski, Rzewuski, Malczewski, Zaleski, Ujejski, Kraszewski.

Fourth Year

Short history of Polish literature from the Middle Ages to the present times. (Blotnicki, Galle, Mazanowski, Tarnowski.) Careful study and analysis and written reports on the modern and contemporary masters of Polish prose and poetry. The

following writers are recommended: Mickiewicz, Krasinski, Slowacki, Korzeniowski, Sienkiewicz, Asnyk, Prus, Rydel, Reymont, Wyspianski, Kalinka, Szujski.

NOTES

The request of President Coolidge that the week of November 17 be observed as Education Week was cordially complied with by the high schools and colleges affiliated with the Catholic University. The great possibilities and varied opportunities which this week yearly offers to the schools to carry out to the people that message, which will aid them in continuing their sacrifices for the advancement of education, can be seen in the following suggestive programs:

Immaculata Seminary of Washington, D. C., had the pupils of its junior college department read and discuss for the assembled guests such timely topics as the Evolution and Value of the Parish School, the Need of Religion in Education, and the Contributions of The Catholic Church in the Field of American Education.

At Monte Maria Academy of Richmond, Va., the papers centered about the Need and Value of Vocational Guidance, with special emphasis on the part parents should have in this needful scholastic duty. The practical result of these sessions was the formation of a Mothers' and Teachers' Association. Its object is to be "The greater welfare of the pupil by the mutual cooperation of parents and teachers."

The program arranged for by St. Joseph's Academy of New Orleans provided for six afternoon meetings to which the parents of the pupils and the general public were invited.

The outstanding feature of the well selected program of St. Mary's Academy, Milwaukee, Wis., was the series of papers prepared and read by the students, representing the different classes. The natural interest of the parents was thus made to serve as a factor in bringing home to them and their friends the true meaning and need of higher education in a republic.

Mt. St. Joseph's Academy of Hartford, Conn., reports that, through the generosity of Mrs. Nicholas Brady of New York, the Nicholas Brady Scholarship has been established. It provides for board and tuition for the four years and is to be awarded by

means of a competitive examination, held at the academy every June.

During his visit to the diocese of Hartford, His Excellency, the Most Reverend Fumasoni-Biondi, the Apostolic Delegate to the United States, was the guest at Mt. St. Joseph's Academy. On Monday, November 17, he addressed the faculty and students. He was accompanied by the Very Rev. Msgr. Marella, the Auditor of Papal Delegation at Washington, D. C.

A gift of 500 volumes, many of them rare copies of first editions, published in the early part of the eighteenth century, was donated to Mt. St. Joseph's Academy by Mr. and Mrs. Thomas Garvan of Hartford. The volumes are a part of the library of the late Judge Garvan. With them a life size oil painting of the late Judge Edward Garvan was also donated.

A new physical laboratory has been installed in St. Gabriel's High School at Hazleton, Pa. Among the recent additions of new books to the library of this school, "The Chronicles of America," the Encyclopedia "Americana," and the "New Students' Reference Library" are the most noteworthy. This institution may well be proud of the fact that it has furnished the new science lecture hall of Misericordia College, recently opened at Dalles, Pa. The pupils of St. Gabriel's High School contributed to the Junior Red Cross of Hazleton the sum of \$81.50. Social work in this institution took the concrete form of collecting and distributing 75 baskets to the poor on Thanksgiving Day.

Mt. St. Joseph's Academy of Chestnut Hill, Pa., entertained the delegates of the I. F. C. A. on Friday of their convention week. After the Benediction of the Blessed Sacrament came a reception, and tea was served. Among the recent lectures given at the academy were "Modern English Writers" by Louis Wetmore and "Readings from Dickens" by the Rev. Dawson Byrne.

LEO L. McVAY.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

REPORT OF THE 21ST ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

A volume whose bulk and contents show the scope and growth of the Catholic Educational Association is the Report just issued of the twenty-first annual meeting held in Milwaukee last summer. In the seventeen years which have elapsed since the third meeting of the then very young association was held in Archbishop Messmer's See city, the organization has grown to be one of many departments and sections, each valuable in itself and in relation to the parent association.

The present volume carries many papers of importance to the student of educational progress. In the General Meetings there were three papers of paramount interest—"Rebuilding the Educational Ladder" by Rev. William Cunningham, C. S. C., Ph., of Notre Dame University; "The Church as Protected by State and National Constitutions" by former Attorney General James L. O'Connor, of Milwaukee, and "Evolution from the Standpoint of Catholic Education," by Rev. Barry O'Toole, Ph. D., S. T. D., of St. Vincent's Archabbey, Beatty, Pa. Mr. O'Connor's paper appeared as the August Bulletin of the Association, and received wide circulation and much favorable comment. Father O'Toole gives a more comprehensive treatment of the subject of evolution from the Church's viewpoint, marshalling his facts in a clear-cut and convincing manner. The paper is well worth study and circulation, arming the reader, as it does, with facts to meet the attacks of infidel science.

Secondary Education

In the Department of Colleges and Secondary Schools are listed many interesting papers and discussions. Rev. Ignatius Wagner, C. PP. S., traces the growth of the Junior College in a scholarly paper, and Rev. Albert Muntsch, S. J., writes on "Social Studies as a Preparation for Leadership," while "The College as a Preparation for Professional Studies," receives able discussion at the hands of Rev. Joseph A. Hickey, O. S. A., D. D., of Villanova College. The matter of teaching religion in

high school and college, always a subject of special importance to the members of the Association, is ably treated by Dr. Cullen, rector of the College of St. Thomas, St. Paul, Minn. Dr. Cullen believes in specializing more and more in religious teaching. "Let us," he said, "refer to religion in every subject—science, art, literature and all; let us spiritualize our motives; let us be the shining examples we are meant to be. Let us be just, patient, fair-minded and noble in all our dealings with one another and with our students; let us be true to God! Let us spread the honey of wisdom over the bread of our words and our actions, or rather leaven this bread with the sweetness of truth. We have in our keeping the religion of America, the religion of the world. Let us prove ourselves worthy of our trust."

In the Secondary Education Section the paper of Rev. Felix M. Kirsch, O. M. Cap., of Washington, D. C., on "Phases of the History of Secondary Education," stands out as a concise presentation of the growth and significance of the high school movement, supplemented, too, by an admirable discussion by Rev. Joseph A. Dunney. Rev. William P. McNally, S. T. L., rector of the Roman Catholic High School, Philadelphia, follows with a paper on "The Present Status of the High School," and Rev. Francis M. Connell, S. J., treats of "The Adjustment of the High School to Present-Day Needs."

In a comprehensive paper on "Objectionable Features of Co-education in the High School," Rev. Peter J. Bernarding, of Pittsburgh, gives some cogent reasons for the segregation of the sexes in secondary schools.

There are a number of valuable papers in the Library Section and also in the Conference of Catholic Colleges for Women.

Parish School Matters

"The Usefulness of Educational Tests" is the subject taken up by Dr. Foran, of the Catholic University, and ably discussed by Sister Alphonso, C. I. M. The use of "Visual Instruction Especially in Religion," is discussed by Rev. Dr. Hugh Lamb, while Dr. Ralph L. Hayes treats of "The Office of Diocesan Superintendent." "Health Education in the Schools and its Necessity" is the subject of an excellent paper from the pen of Brother Anselm, C. F. X., of St. Xavier's College, Louisville,

Ky., while Brother Joseph Matthew, F. S. C., of De La Salle Academy, Kansas City, Mo., writes of "Vocational Guidance in the Grades."

Papers in the Superintendents' Section are noted by Rev. Charles J. Linsky, Rev. Joseph Barbian, Rev. F. J. Macelwane, Rev. Dr. E. B. Jordan, Rev. Dr. John R. Hagan and Rev. Henry M. Hald, Ph. D.

There are sections devoted to the Catholic deaf-mutes and to the blind, with papers specifically relating to their care and education.

In the Conference of Religious Superiors many valuable papers are also listed, but space does not permit of a complete review of all.

Seminary Department

Papers of high merit, reflecting the scholarly attainments of the writers, are those of the Seminary Department, and its adjunct, the Preparatory Seminary Section. This year, in compliance with recent Papal decrees in regard to the works of St. Thomas Aquinas the Seminary Department devoted most of its papers to a discussion of the Angelic Doctor and his writings. The subjects and their writers are as follows: "St. Thomas, *Communis Ecclesiae* Doctor," Rev. William L. Hornsby, S. J.; "Scholasticism and Modern Thought," Rev. Bernard Vogt, O. F. M., Ph. D.; "The Modernity of the *Summa Contra Gentiles*," Rev. J. B. Culemans, Ph. D.; "Characteristics of the Theology of St. Thomas," Rev. A. J. Muench, D. S. Sc.; "St. Thomas at Monte Cassino," Rt. Rev. Archabbot Stehle, O. S. B., D. D.; "The Teaching of St. Thomas Concerning Priestly Perfection," Rev. Anthony Vieban, S. S., D. D. Other papers were by Dr. Leo Miller, of the Josephinum, Columbus, on "The Pedagogical Value of the Scholastic Disputation" and by Rev. C. L. Cremin, S. T. L., L. Ph., on "The Pedagogical Coordination of Theological Studies." Not the least interesting part of the papers in the Report are the discussions which follow so many of the papers, serving as they do to further elaborate and clarify the points discussed.

As an illustration of Catholic education and what it is accomplishing in this country, the present volume speaks eloquently.

No one could glance even cursorily through its pages and fail to be impressed with the deep sincerity and unflagging earnestness with which Catholic educators address themselves to their task.

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EDUCATIONAL PERIODICALS

The American School Board Journal (December): George F. Womrath begins in this issue a series of helpful articles on "The Janitor-Engineer Problem," a subject on which he is a recognized authority. "The Appointment and the Tenure of Teachers" in towns and smaller cities, is discussed by Floyd T. Goodier. M. E. Clark contributes "An Outline for the Supervision of Instruction in the Small High School," which is based on the writer's personal experience. Two other interesting articles are "The Financial Reports of One Hundred City School Systems," by Elmer H. Staffebach, and "Educational Ranking of States by Two Methods," by Frank M. Phillips.

Catholic School Interests (November): Francis M. Crowley is the author of an article presenting the claims of vocational training to a more important place in the curricula of the Catholic schools. The value of cheerfulness to the Catholic teacher is the subject of a very helpful paper by Felix M. Kirsch, O. M. Cap. Sister Mary Laetitia, O. S. F., offers some practical suggestions for the teaching of problems in physics.

The Catholic School Journal (November): Under title of "The Educational Phantasy," a Christian Brother writes of the need for better education rather than for more. Sister Mary Brigid, O. S. B., contributes a paper dealing with two questions, (a) Are grade teachers to blame for the unsatisfactory standard of high school English? and (b) What particular aspects of English should be stressed in the ninth grade? Rev. Francis P. Donnelly, S. J., makes a "Plea for the Difficult Studies" that is thoughtful and readable. A Sister of Charity of Nazareth (Ky.), is the author of a study of "The Project Method of Instruction (Its Value and Limitations)."

The Elementary School Journal (November): "Types of Learning," by Charles H. Judd, is the second of a series of

articles on educational psychology. This study is an analysis of the learning process which aims to show that much of the learning which is accomplished in schools is of a type which would be impossible without a social background. Homer C. Wilson contributes a very interesting discussion of "An Opportunity and Adjustment School of the Intermediate Type." "Some Next Steps in Establishing Standards for Teachers' Colleges," is the title of a report by H. A. Brown, dealing with the problem of standardizing faculties, in point of number.

The English Journal (November): "Differences in ability which demand change in subject matter and method," by Essie Chamberlain, is a study based on the comparison of two ninth-year English classes, one of superior and one of inferior ability. Gladys Campbell, in her article "Training high-school students to visualize descriptive literature," suggests the making and planning of illustrations as an aid to the real appreciation of poetry. That "The Library in the Junior High School" can be made an important factor in the daily work of pupils and teachers is shown by the article of Marion Lovis.

The Commonweal: *The Commonweal* is a newcomer which we welcome into the field of Catholic journalism. The successive issues of this weekly review of literature, the arts, and public affairs, have contained contributions from some of the foremost writers of the day. It is published by the Calvert Associates, Inc., who are to be congratulated on the excellence of their journal.

K. J. C.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES

Kelly (A Novel), by Martin J. Scott, S.J. New York: Benziger Brothers, 1924. Pp. 232+12. Price, \$1.50.

This is a sane and vigorous story with a special ethical value. The theme is the practical application of the principles laid down in the masterly encyclical of Leo XIII on the condition of labor. A threatened strike, criminal strike manipulators, attempted murder, intrigue, and the inevitable happy ending are the ingredients of a plot which should not fail to interest. We have, therefore, the happy combination of a popular appeal with truly illuminating material on a vital question. For this reason the book is worthy of a place in any school library.

KATHLEEN J. COSTELLO.

An Elementary Study of Chemistry, by McPherson and Henderson. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1924. Pp. 612. \$2.40.

For a number of years these two authors have been widely and favorably known through their series of textbooks on general chemistry of high school, intermediate and college grade.

The outstanding difficulty in preparing such a textbook of chemistry lies in deciding what to omit: there is so much that claims attention. Second only in difficulty is the order of presentation, and while these two problems are not nearly so formidable as they were for the older generation, they are still pressing and it is hoped that they will continue to receive attention.

In all of the books by the present authors we find much the same material and approximately the same order of presentation. In these two respects, at least, the books have been developed along traditional rather than original lines. The subtitle of the present volume, "An Introductory College Course," is better adapted to the size and scope of the book than is the main title. It is presumably intended for those college freshmen who have had no previous acquaintance with the subject. It might perhaps be found useful as the basis of an intensive course for all freshmen during the first half-year, provided the laboratory work taken concurrently did not also involve repetition of much that is ordinarily included in the high-school course. Such a plan would have the advantage of giving more freedom to the lecturer during the second half-year for stressing such

theoretical, mathematical or analytical portions of the subject as he might decide. The book is well written, maintains an admirable balance between the fundamental principles of chemistry, the properties of substances and the every-day applications of these branches of the science to the arts and industries.

HARDEE CHAMBLISS.

Some Problems in Roman History. Ten essays bearing on the administrative and legislative work of Julius Caesar, by E. G. Hardy, M.A. Clarendon Press. Price, \$6.00.

In that magnificent chapter of Mommsen on "The Subjugation of the West" we read the simple statement that Caesar's office as governor of Gaul "was committed to him first for five years, then for five more." This the layman piously accepts. But the experts have been vexed about it these many years and have weighed the "sic et non" of opposing traditions, Suetonius against Dio and Appian against Hirtius, with conclusions drifting away from the primitive faith. The volume before us gives fifty-six pages of close argument to bear out the classical statement. This as an example.

The rest of the ten essays get unity in that they have to do with securing the nearest truth about some of Caesar's more important activities. They are pieces of highly specialized historical writing. The book is not for the general reader, but is recommended to those whose learning and leisure permit them to seek for exact and somewhat minute knowledge about one of the most splendid careers in human history. J. K. C.

Measuring Results in Education, by Marion R. Trabue. New York: The American Book Co., 1924. Pp. 492.

Among the prominent characteristics of this text on educational measurements are the detailed discussion of statistics and the absence of any adequate reference to remedial teaching. Statistics are but means to an end, and accentuation of means sometimes beclouds the purpose. In this book statistics have usurped a rôle that is not rightly theirs. A more moderate quantity would have sufficed. Some mention of remedial methods is imperative if tests and measurements are to serve any practical purpose. High-school tests receive the same amount of space as remedial activities.

There are several commendable features to the book. The analyses of tests in the elementary school subjects are very good. The author has pointed out very clearly what various tests do measure. But the book appears too difficult for the class of students for whom it is intended, while neglecting important phases of their instruction. T. G. FORAN.

Trois Semaines, en France (Livre de Lecture), by L. Chouville.
New York: Oxford University Press, 1914.

This little book is very interesting. It is another story about tourists, but one notices with pleasure that this one does not deal with the "Boulevards" and Parisian museums or cafés. The subject is a trip, taken by two young Englishmen and a French friend, through Normandy and Brittany, two of the most picturesque provinces in France. The style is clear, simple and charming. It is a good example of the French language as spoken. There are many typical idioms, which are presented in such a way that the student will easily master them. The descriptions of the old cities and monuments, the historical recollections which are called up by churches and castles, the glimpses of French customs, country people and family life will appeal to anybody who reads this book. The exercises based upon the text will provide ample material for conversation, as well as for oral and written drill, but it is regrettable to find no translation from English into French, as this should be the main object of teaching French to English students. The grammatical recapitulation which follows the story covers the principal rules of French grammar, and certainly will be used with good results.

The second part of the book, based upon phonetic transcription, does not appeal to the reviewer, whose personal opinion is against teaching a foreign language by this method. It obliges students to learn a very complicated and unattractive alphabet, which changes in almost every different grammar or reader. When the pupil has to read the language as written, he does not recognize it, and his pronunciation is by no means better. It is scarcely possible for a high school or college boy to give up his native accent in his native country. The results given by this method do not make up for the precious time wasted to assimilate these queer-looking symbols. ANDRÉ M. BENETEAU.

Books Received

Educational

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Sisters of St. Agnes; History Curricula. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924, pp. x+70.

Sears, Jesse B., and Cubberley, Ellwood P., *The Cost of Education in California*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924, pp. xxviii+353.

Wilhelm, N. O., *Use and Teaching of Classics in Schools*. Earmington, Maine: Knowlton Co., 1924, pp. 21. Price 25 cents.

Willett, George W., *The Public School Debt in Illinois*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924, pp. xv+97.

Textbooks

Barrows, Harlan H., and Parker, Edith Putnam, *Geography, Journeys in Distant Lands*. New York: Silver Burdett & Co., 1924. Pp. vii+152.

Betten, Francis S., S.J., *Historical Terms and Facts*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1924. Pp. x+165. Price, \$1.00.

Desnoyers, Louis, *Les Aventures de Robert-Robert*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1924. Pp. 96. Price, 50 cents.

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General

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Moffatt, J. E., S. J., *Thy Kingdom Come*. New York: Benziger Bros., 1924, pp. 64. Price, 30 cents.

Ramee, Louise de la, *The Nurnberg Stove and Other Stories*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1924, pp. vii x 296.

Robarts, Henry, *A Most Friendly Farewell to Sir Francis Drake*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1924, pp. xi+12.

Specking, Inez, *The Awakening of Edith*. New York: Benziger Bros., 1924, pp. 217. Price, \$1.50.

Specking, Inez, *Missy*. New York: Benziger Bros., 1924, pp. 188. Price, \$1.50.

Sylvestre, Noel, *The Sacrament of Silence*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924, pp. 266. Price, \$1.75.

Taggart, Marion Ames, *The Dearest Girl*. New York: Benziger Bros., 1924, pp. 231. Price, \$1.50.

Von Roeder, Baroness, *Our Father in Word and Picture*. Chicago: Matre & Co., pp. 15. Price, 75 cents.

Williams, Rev. Joseph J., S. J., *Yearning for God*. New York: Benziger Bros., 1924, pp. 183. Price, \$1.50.

Pamphlets

Buchan, John, *Some Notes on Sir Walter Scott*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1924, pp. 19. Price, 70 cents.

Colvin, Stephen S., and MacPhail, Andrew H., *Intelligence of Seniors in the High Schools of Massachusetts*. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1924, No. 9.

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